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Short communication

Lack of evidence for short-term structural changes in bird assemblages breeding in Mediterranean mosaics moderately perforated by a wind farm

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Wind farm turbines induce a habitat perforation in oak mosaics.
- About 10 % in habitat perforation is not enough to change structure in bird assemblages.
- A lack of changes is also evident at guild (edge vs. forest species) and species level.
- Further research is necessary to search a higher threshold in habitat perforation inducing a change in assemblage structure.

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ABSTRACT

We studied a set of common breeding birds living in a heterogeneous oak wood mosaic of Apennines (central Italy) where a wind farm occurred. Aim to assess differences in composition and structure between a treatment area (with wind farm turbines) and a control area (without wind farm turbines). We did not observe differences at assemblage (uni- and bi-variate metrics of diversity: mean species richness, Shannon–Wiener diversity index, evenness, Whittaker β_w index and diversity/dominance diagrams), guild and species level (relative frequencies). The limited habitat perforation and dissection induced by wind farm turbines and service roads (10% in area) and the consequent changes in spatial heterogeneity and level of anthropogenic disturbance (induced by a higher motor-car and people frequentation) did not seem to affect the breeding bird communities in oak mosaics, as supported also by the diversity/dominance analysis. However, our preliminary conclusions are limited only to the indirect impact on common breeding bird species and are not related on to possible direct impacts deriving from wind farm facilities and related infrastructures (e.g., direct impact for collision). Moreover, further research is necessary to detect possible higher thresholds in habitat perforation that may induce changes in breeding bird assemblages.

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1. Introduction

Anthropogenic and natural spatial heterogeneity constitutes a driving force that explains patterns of species richness and abundance in animal communities occurring in patchy landscapes (Fahrig et al., 2011). Among birds, the role of fine-grained

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small-scale (i.e. patch-scale) habitat disturbances on avian assemblages have been widely investigated, mainly in temperate boreal forests (e.g. Derleth et al., 1989; Forsman et al., 2010).

In mountainous and hilly areas of Mediterranean basin, historical and recent anthropogenic disturbances contributed to structuralize complex landscape patterns (Forman, 1995; Blondel and Aronson, 1999; Zamora et al., 2007 and Battisti and Fanelli, 2011). These landscapes are frequently characterized by low level of anthropization and shows a natural and human-induced patchiness (e.g. Farina, 1997 and Brotons et al., 2005). Moreover, these hilly mosaics are often located in favourable conditions concerning dominant regional and local winds, therefore many ridges and exposed sides were selected as sites to locate wind farm facilities (Williams et al., 2001; Noguera et al., 2010).

Wind farm facilities are infrastructures that may structurally and functionally affect a large set of local abiotic and biotic components at multiple spatial and temporal scales (e.g.: Winkelman, 1992, 1995; Marti and Barrios, 1995; Richardson, 2000; Langston and Pullan, 2003; Zieliński et al., 2009 and Gove et al., 2013). The impact (direct, indirect or potential) on the biotic components has been analysed for birds and bats in particular, showing a strong context- and species-specific response (Jain et al., 2010; Huso, 2011; Johnson and Erickson, 2010; Ferrer et al., 2011 and Langston and Pullan, 2003). Particularly, wind farm-related infrastructures (windmills, roads, electric lines, etc.) and related disturbances (people frequentation, motor-car transit, etc.) may also indirectly impact the population density, as they change the level both of landscape heterogeneity, so consequently disrupting the structure at assemblage and species level (Langston and Pullan, 2003).

At least for Mediterranean ecosystems, research focusing on the indirect impact at bird assemblage level are still rare (e.g. Battisti et al., 2014a, b).

Here, we report a study carried out on common breeding bird assemblages living in a poorly studied heterogeneous landscape mosaic of Apennines (Abruzzo, central Italy) where a cluster of windmills is located. Particularly, the aim of this study is to quantify the differences at bird assemblage and species level between two oak mosaics with different wind farm-induced heterogeneity, assessing the differences between a treatment area (with a wind farm) and a control area (a comparable mosaic where wind farm infrastructures are absent). Our prediction is that as wind farm infrastructures created small but well distributed open areas inside the oak mosaics, thus increasing the internal patchy heterogeneity and small-scale disturbances, we should have sampled a change in some uni- and bi-variate metrics at level of structural assemblage, guilds and species of common breeding birds.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

The study has been carried out in a natural and human-induced heterogeneous landscape near San Giovanni Lipioni (Chieti) in the Southern Abruzzo (monti Frentani, central Apennines, Italy) on a surface of about 600 ha near the river Trigno at an altitude ranging from 400 to 740 m a.s.l. (geographic coordinates: 41° 84'73" N, 14° 56'27" E). In this area oak patchy mosaics (MOS) are present, characterized by termophilous woods of deciduous oaks (*Quercion pubescentis-petraea*, with *Quercus pubescens* dominant and secondarily *Quercus cerris*, *Acer* sp., *Carpinus* sp., *Castanea sativa*) on arid calcareous and muddy soils (EU habitat type 91H0: "Pannonian woods with *Quercus pubescens*", largely diffused in central–Southern Apennines: Petrella et al., 2005). Two plant associations occur in this context: *Rosa sempervirens-Quercetum pubescentis* and *Cytisio sessilifolii-Quercetum pubescentis* (Pirone, 1995). In the surrounding, open habitats characterized by large extension of crop and uncultivated lands (wheat and secondarily vegetable crops, vineyards and olive groves) with rare shrubs, hedge and trees (mainly *Prunus* sp., *Rosa* sp., *Crataegus* sp.) are also present. Locally a patchy mesophilous and hygrophilous vegetation also occur with *Populus* sp., *Salix* sp., *Ulmus* sp., *Acer campestre*, *Fraxinus ornus* (Pirone, 1995).

Inside the MOS habitat type, five wind turbines (coded from WTG 1 to WTG 5; Eolica Lucana—Iberdrola) have been located (Caccavone ridge, Vernone hill) between 636 and 703 m a.s.l. so perforating an 300 hectares-wide area. At landscape level, the building of windmills and their related infrastructures regarded an area of about 30 ha (6 ha of transformed area for each wind turbine), corresponding to about 10% of the MOSs where the wind farm facilities have been located. Wind turbines were placed in 2012 and started their full-time activity in winter 2013.

2.2. Protocol

To study the structure of breeding bird assemblages, in MOS we carried out an intensive surveys sessions in 2013 from 4 May to 15 June carrying out a standardized quantitative point count method (hereafter, PCM; Koskimies and Väisänen, 1991; Bibby et al., 2000 and Sutherland, 2006). The point count method has been widely used to characterize bird assemblages in terms of species richness, diversity and composition at landscape level (Sutherland, 2006). Moreover, this method provided the analysis of fine-grained bird–habitat relationships (Morrison, 2002).

In each randomly selected point count ($n = 54$), we sampled any territorial sighting or singing individual of any bird species inside a standardized distance from the observer (100 m as fixed radius of detection; see Bibby et al., 2000). Time of sampling in each point count was 5 min. When highly replicated at landscape level, this timing can provide a good description of the breeding bird assemblages (Sutherland, 2006). However, some rarer species of the breeding assemblage under study, including some diurnal raptors, woodpeckers, and rare and less detectable passerines, could be underestimated

with this duration (Sorace et al., 2000). Therefore, we consider our data only related to “common species”, i.e. species locally abundant and easily detectable with the PCM method (Bibby et al., 2000; Sutherland, 2006).

To detect breeding birds, we carried out the sampling in spring season, mainly in the morning (from 6.00 to 12.00 a.m.) and always in sunny (or moderately cloudy) conditions. We maintained a minimum distance between points of 300 m to reduce biases due to double-counting of the same individuals (bias for pseudo-replication and lack of independence; Battisti et al., 2014a, b). To determine the location and distance of each point we used a GPS E-trex.

To assess differences in structure between assemblages in MOS with wind turbines and in MOS without ones, we stratified the sampling design in two sub-habitat types:

- a treatment area (MOST), i.e. oak mosaics with windmills and relative infrastructures (5 turbines, related roads, etc.; 21 point counts). A moderate disturbance (by noise) occurred in MOST area: a road (recently built: 2011–2012), linking the wind turbines, was periodically used from Iberdrola's technicians and practitioners (about 1–5 motor-vehicles/day);
- a control area (MOSc), i.e. a comparable oak mosaic area without wind farm and related infrastructures distant from 1.5 to 3 km from the treatment area. In the MOSc motor-vehicles never occurred due to the only presence of wood trails rarely frequented by hunters and other local people (33 point counts).

2.3. Data analyses

First, we obtained a check-list of species each one characterized by the level of conservation concern (inclusion in red list: Rondinini et al., 2013) and Bird Directive 409/79/CEE (BirdLife International, 2004).

At level of single species, we obtained their normalized relative frequency fr_i (i.e. the ratio between the number of individuals detected and the total number of individuals; ranging from 0 to 1) in total and both the two sub-habitats.

To assess an effect of wind farm perforation at guild level, we subdivided the species in two coarse-grained habitat-related guilds (Table 1): (i) open/edge species, mainly linked to open habitats and edge conditions and, (ii) mosaic/forest species, mainly linked to forest or woody mosaic conditions (data on the ecological preference of the various species were gathered from the peer-reviewed literature: Moore and Hooper, 1975; Cieslak, 1985; Opdam et al., 1985; Møller, 1987; Hinsley et al., 1995; Bellamy et al., 1996 and Ukmar et al., 2007). Then, we obtained the total values of total fr_i for each guild.

At assemblage level, for each sampling point we obtained the number of species (S_p); this parameter corresponded, at spatial level, to an α -diversity measure (i.e., the number of species referred to a single sampling point, Whittaker, 1972 and Magurran, 2004). For each sub-habitat type, at level of the whole set of point counts, we obtained the following community parameters: (i) total number of species (S), a measure of γ -diversity for the relative habitat type or sub-type (Whittaker, 1972; see also Magurran, 2004); (ii) mean number of species (a normalized metric of richness; S_{mean}), as the ratio between the number of species identified in each point count and the number of point counts; (iii) mean abundance index (a normalized metric of abundance; AB_{mean}), as the ratio between the individuals sampled in each point count and the number of point counts. We did not account for the different detectability of the species: therefore, we obtained only a simple index of abundance.

To assess the structural complexity of each assemblage we calculated the Shannon–Wiener diversity index (Shannon and Weaver, 1963; Pielou, 1966), as:

$$H' = -\sum fr_i \ln fr_i.$$

We calculated also the evenness index, as $e = H'/H'_{max}$, where H'_{max} corresponded to $\ln(S)$.

Landscape heterogeneity as consequence to natural and human-induced processes (e.g., disturbances) may be indirectly assessed using uni-variate metrics of diversity (Magurran and McGill, 2011). Among them, the concept of β -diversity has been applied along environmental gradients and patterns of heterogeneity (Whittaker, 1972; Wiens, 1989; Koleff et al., 2003; Magurran, 2004; Dornelas et al., 2011). In our study, to assess the habitat heterogeneity of each habitat type, we calculated the Whittaker β_w index (Whittaker, 1960), as:

$$\beta_w = S/S_{mean},$$

where S was considered a measure of γ -diversity and S_{mean} , a measure of averaged α -diversity values among point counts. This index indirectly estimated a bird-related internal habitat heterogeneity assessing the species turnover among points (assuming that the higher the species turnover, the higher the habitat heterogeneity; Magurran, 2004).

In most of the ecological literature, the diversity/dominance curves are used as bi-variate approach to assess specific changes in the species assemblages (e.g., Whittaker plots; Whittaker, 1960; Battisti and Guidi, 2010 and Santoro et al., 2012). For instance, the profile, trend, and shape of the diagram lines may convey information on change in evenness and, consequently, in the assemblage structure (higher slope of tendency lines, higher stressed is an assemblage; Magurran, 2004). In these diagrams, all the species in a sample are ranked from the most to the least relatively abundant. Each species has a rank, which is plotted on the X-axis, and a frequency on the Y-axis. The frequency for the most abundant species is plotted first, then the next most common, and so on (see Magurran, 2004). In this work, we performed diversity/dominance diagrams comparing both the assemblages detected in control (MOSc) vs. treatment (MOST) assemblages to detect possible differences in slope (z coefficient) of the tendency lines. We obtained the fit of the better curve calculating their coefficient of determination (R^2).

Table 1

Check-list of recorded bird species. Scientific name, level of conservation concern in national red list (Rondinini et al., 2013; see also Bulgarini et al., 1998; LIPU and WWF, 1999; VU: Vulnerable, NT: Near threatened, LT: Least concern; DD: Data deficient) and inclusion in the Annex 1 of 409/79/CEE Bird Directive ('1') are reported.

| Species | Red list (national) | Bird Directive | Species | Red list (national) | Bird Directive |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| <i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i> | LC | | <i>Saxicola torquatus</i> | VU | |
| <i>Pernis apivorus</i> | LC | 1 | <i>Turdus merula</i> | LC | |
| <i>Milvus migrans</i> | NT | 1 | <i>Turdus viscivorus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Milvus milvus</i> | VU | 1 | <i>Hippolais poliglotta</i> | LC | |
| <i>Circus gallicus</i> | VU | 1 | <i>Sylvia cantillans/subalpina</i> | LC | |
| <i>Buteo buteo</i> | LC | | <i>Sylvia melanocephala</i> | LC | |
| <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> | LC | | <i>Sylvia communis</i> | LC | |
| <i>Falco vespertinus</i> | VU | 1 | <i>Sylvia atricapilla</i> | LC | |
| <i>Falco peregrinus</i> | LC | 1 | <i>Phylloscopus sibilatrix</i> | LC | |
| <i>Columba livia f. domestica</i> | – | | <i>Phylloscopus collybita</i> | LC | |
| <i>Coturnix coturnix</i> | DD | | <i>Regulus ignicapilla</i> | LC | |
| <i>Columba palumbus</i> | LC | | <i>Aegithalos caudatus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Streptopelia turtur</i> | LC | | <i>Periparus ater</i> | LC | |
| <i>Cuculus canorus</i> | LC | | <i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Asio otus</i> | LC | | <i>Parus major</i> | LC | |
| <i>Athene noctua</i> | LC | | <i>Sitta europaea</i> | LC | |
| <i>Strix aluco</i> | LC | | <i>Certhia brachydactyla</i> | LC | |
| <i>Caprimulgus europaeus</i> | LC | 1 | <i>Oriolus oriolus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Apus apus</i> | LC | | <i>Garrulus glandarius</i> | LC | |
| <i>Merops apiaster</i> | LC | | <i>Pica pica</i> | LC | |
| <i>Picus viridis</i> | LC | | <i>Corvus monedula</i> | LC | |
| <i>Dendrocopos major</i> | LC | | <i>Corvus cornix</i> | LC | |
| <i>Lullula arborea</i> | LC | 1 | <i>Passer domesticus/italiae</i> | LC (italiae: VU) | |
| <i>Alauda arvensis</i> | VU | | <i>Fringilla coelebs</i> | LC | |
| <i>Hirundo rustica</i> | NT | | <i>Serinus serinus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Anthus pratensis</i> | NT | | <i>Chloris chloris</i> | NT | |
| <i>Troglodytes troglodytes</i> | LC | | <i>Carduelis carduelis</i> | LC | |
| <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> | LC | | <i>Carduelis cannabina</i> | LC | |
| <i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i> | LC | | <i>Emberiza cirulus</i> | LC | |
| <i>Phoenicurus ochruros</i> | LC | | <i>Emberiza calandra</i> | LC | |
| <i>Phoenicurus phoenicurus</i> | LC | | | 61 | |

Values of S_{mean} and ABB_{mean} for the two sub-habitat types were compared using the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U test. We performed a non-parametric two-sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov test to compare two set of data (pairs of frequency distributions in MOSc vs. MOST) to determine whether they come from the same distribution (Dytham, 2011). Finally, we compared the relative frequencies of species and guilds in MOSc vs. MOST using the χ^2 test (only for species having at least 5 records in total). We also correlated the frequency values among species using a non-parametric Spearman rank correlation test (2 tail).

All tests were two-tailed, and alpha was set at 5%. We used the softwares SPSS 13.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc. 2003) and Primer 4.2 (Glantz, 1996). Alfa was set at 0.05.

We checked for data reliability using the data-sheets in Battisti et al. (2014a,b). Taxonomic nomenclature followed AERC TAC (2003) and Fracasso et al. (2009).

3. Results

Totally, we detected 61 bird species (including also not breeding species: vagrants, long-distance migrants; Table 1). Among them, four species were included in the IUCN category as “Near Threatened” and 5 as “Vulnerable” (see Rondinini et al., 2013). Using the PCM, we obtained 286 records belonging to 27 breeding species (22 in MOSc and 20 in MOST) (Table 2).

We did not observe significant differences between relative frequencies in MOSc and MOST both at species (χ^2 test; Table 2) and guild level (open/edge vs. mosaic/forest species: $\chi^2 = 0.001$, $p = 0.977$).

Comparing the relative frequencies between MOSc and MOST, we observed a direct and significant correlation ($r_s = 0.696$, $p = 0.000$; Spearman rank correlation test, 2 tail, $n = 27$).

At community level, differences in values both for ABB_{mean} and S_{mean} were not significant when comparing MOSc and MOST sub-habitats (respectively, $Z = -1.100$, $p = 0.271$ and $Z = -0.639$, $p = 0.523$, Mann–Whitney U test; Fig. 1).

The values of H' index were apparently similar between the MOSc and MOST habitat sub-types (Table 3). The β -diversity index did not show evident differences between MOSc and MOST (Table 3).

We obtained higher values of coefficient of determination (always $R^2 > 0.80$) for the logarithmic curves (better fit; Fig. 2). The diversity/dominance diagrams (Whittaker plots) showed as the curves are largely overlapping when comparing the curves for treatment and control assemblages ($z = -0.07$ for both of them; not significant difference: $Z = 0.588$, $p = 0.879$; two-sample Kolmogorov–Smirnov test; Fig. 2).

Table 2

Detected common breeding bird species, total number of records (N) and their relative frequencies (Fr) in open habitats and oak mosaics and for the two sub-areas (control and treatment with windmills). Species are grouped in two main ecological guild (m/f: mosaic/forest species; o/e: open and edge habitats; see methods). The values of χ^2 and p are reported (test performed only for species with total $n > 5$).

| Species | Control | Treatment | χ^2 and p | Total | |
|--|-----------|-----------|------------------|-------|-----------|
| | Fr | Fr | | Fr | N |
| <i>Falco tinnunculus</i> (o/e) | | 0.01 | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Columba palumbus</i> (m/f) | 0.022 | 0.038 | 0.175 (0.675) | 0.028 | 8 |
| <i>Streptopelia turtur</i> (m/f) | | 0.01 | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Cuculus canorus</i> (m/f) | 0.011 | 0.048 | 2.348 (0.125) | 0.024 | 7 |
| <i>Apus apus</i> (o/e) | 0.006 | | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Picus viridis</i> (m/f) | 0.006 | 0.019 | | 0.01 | 3 |
| <i>Lullula arborea</i> (o/e) | 0.006 | | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Erithacus rubecula</i> (m/f) | 0.061 | 0.086 | 0.310 (0.578) | 0.07 | 20 |
| <i>Luscinia megarhynchos</i> (m/f) | 0.017 | 0.019 | | 0.017 | 5 |
| <i>Turdus merula</i> (m/f) | 0.022 | 0.01 | | 0.017 | 5 |
| <i>Turdus viscivorus</i> (m/f) | | 0.01 | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Sylvia cantillans</i> / <i>Sylvia subalpina</i> (o/e) | 0.193 | 0.171 | 0.003 (0.956) | 0.185 | 53 |
| <i>Sylvia communis</i> (o/e) | | 0.01 | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Sylvia atricapilla</i> (m/f) | 0.243 | 0.219 | 0.006 (0.940) | 0.234 | 67 |
| <i>Phylloscopus collybita</i> (m/f) | 0.006 | | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Periparus ater</i> (m/f) | 0.006 | | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Cyanistes caeruleus</i> (m/f) | 0.061 | 0.105 | 1.244 (0.265) | 0.077 | 22 |
| <i>Parus major</i> (m/f) | 0.055 | 0.038 | 0.132 (0.716) | 0.049 | 14 |
| <i>Certhia brachydactyla</i> (m/f) | 0.006 | | | 0.003 | 1 |
| <i>Oriolus oriolus</i> (m/f) | 0.033 | 0.01 | 0.722 (0.396) | 0.024 | 7 |
| <i>Garrulus glandarius</i> (m/f) | 0.05 | 0.019 | 0.963 (0.326) | 0.038 | 11 |
| <i>Corvus cornix</i> (o/e) | 0.017 | | | 0.01 | 3 |
| <i>Fringilla coelebs</i> (m/f) | 0.061 | 0.057 | 0.018 (0.893) | 0.059 | 17 |
| <i>Carduelis carduelis</i> (o/e) | | 0.019 | | 0.007 | 2 |
| <i>Carduelis cannabina</i> (o/e) | 0.017 | | | 0.01 | 3 |
| <i>Emberiza cirius</i> (o/e) | 0.077 | 0.048 | 0.557 (0.455) | 0.066 | 19 |
| <i>Emberiza calandra</i> (o/e) | 0.028 | 0.057 | 0.869 (0.351) | 0.038 | 11 |
| | $N = 181$ | $N = 105$ | | | $N = 286$ |

Table 3

Structural parameters of breeding bird assemblages in oak mosaics (MOS tot) and in two sub-areas (MOSc: control; MOS t: treatment, with windmills). For abbreviations, see methods.

| Parameters | MOSc | MOS t | MOS tot |
|--|--------------|-------------|---------------|
| S (γ) | 22 | 20 | 27 |
| S_{mean} (α_{mean}) | 4.15 (1.603) | 3.90 (1.51) | 4.056 (1.559) |
| N (ABB TOT) | 181 | 105 | 286 |
| ABB_{mean} | 5.48 (2.002) | 5 (1.817) | 5.296 (1.929) |
| H' | 2.502 | 2.526 | 2.561 |
| e | 0.81 | 0.84 | 0.77 |
| β index | 5.30 | 5.13 | 6.66 |

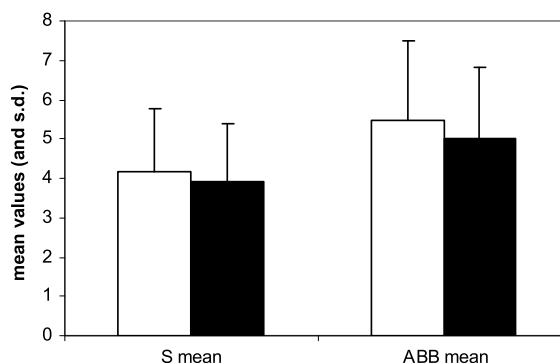


Fig. 1. Comparison between mean number of species (S_{mean}) and mean abundance index (ABB_{mean}) in sub-areas control (MOSc, white columns) and treatment (MOS t, black columns) of oak mosaic.

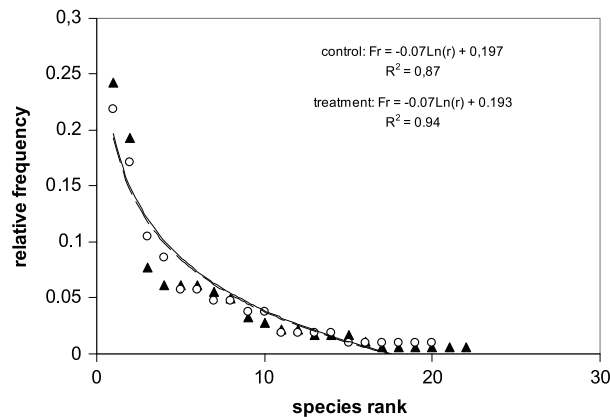


Fig. 2. Whittaker plot (species rank/relative frequency diagram) comparing the species assemblages in control (black triangles and continuous line) and treatment areas (white circles and dashed line). Equation of regression logarithmic line and coefficient of determination (R^2) for control (MOSc) and treatment (MOST) sub-areas (oak mosaics) are reported.

4. Discussion

Bird communities are structured in response to vegetation and environmental constraints, mainly (vertical) vegetation structure and (horizontal) spatial heterogeneity (Whittaker, 1972; Wiens, 1989). In this sense, our study area hosted rich breeding bird assemblages typically characterizing the highly heterogeneous oak mosaic landscapes of the central Apennines (Santone and Di Carlo, 1994; Farina, 1997; Pellegrini et al., 2007). Totally, the number of species recorded (>60) was relatively high when compared to analogous patchy hilly landscapes (e.g. Frank and Battisti, 2005 and Lorenzetti and Battisti, 2006). This fact may be due to the high historical and recent human-induced spatial heterogeneity and structural complexity of these landscapes that increased the availability in niches and resources for many species (e.g. patchiness and presence of ecotones, etc.). Moreover this area (in particular ridges and valley) is also an important site of migration stop-over (Adriatic and South-eastern Mediterranean migratory route; Spina and Volponi, 2008).

Contrary to our predictions, we did not observe differences between oak mosaics hosting wind farm turbines (treatment sub-area) and non-impacted oak mosaics (control sub-area), also using a bi-variate diversity/dominance approach. Probably the low level of fine-grained perforation and dissection induced by windmills and their related infrastructures and roads, did not affect the response in common breeding birds at any investigated level (assemblage, guild and species level).

The location of wind farm turbines generally may induce habitat perforation (Bayne and Dale, 2011), and secondarily dissection by service roads, two specific spatially modelled-patterns of habitat fragmentation that affect bird population and communities (Helle, 1985; Robinson et al., 1992; Matthysen et al., 1995; Fahrig, 1997; Norton et al., 2000; Schmiegelow and Mönkkönen, 2002; Fischer and Lindenmayer, 2007). However, at present, the effect of habitat perforation have been studied only regarding to forest harvesting while research on the effects of perforation due to wind farm facilities are still lacking. For example, Leupin et al. (2004) showed as habitat perforation due to harvesting in high-elevation coniferous woods has not significantly changed the songbird community. However, the effects of perforation may differ, being influenced by total basal area of wood removed and by other factors (context, scale, grain of perforation: Robinson and Robinson, 1999).

Therefore, apparently the 10% in habitat perforation (30 ha on about 300 ha in size of oak mosaics) was not enough to disrupt the assemblage, guild and population structure, at least at the spatial and temporal scale analysed in this study. There are many evidences that the effects of habitat perforation are evident only when overcoming specific thresholds (Suarez-Rubio et al., 2013). More in general, in habitat fragmentation studies it has been highlighted as population and community collapses may develop starting at higher thresholds in habitat changes (see Fahrig, 1997), with responses that are highly context-, scale- and species-dependent (Fischer and Lindenmayer, 2007).

The β -diversity is a key concept for understanding the functioning of ecosystems, for the conservation of biodiversity and for ecosystem management (Legendre et al., 2005). The values of this metric highlights the level of species turnover among point counts and, therefore, the degree of internal habitat heterogeneity in a landscape (Magurran, 2004; Magurran and McGill, 2011). Using this diversity metric, inside the oak mosaics we did not observe differences between control and treatment sub-types (these last with windmills), both at assemblage and species level. The changes at patch level (i.e. internal at the mosaics) induced by the wind turbines, roads and other infrastructures, and to related disturbances (as a higher motorcar transit and people frequentation), apparently did not affect the common breeding bird communities at landscape level. In particular, the values of H' and β -diversity were very similar between MOSc and MOST, suggesting that these assemblages perceived these two sub-types as having a similar level of patchiness, complexity and disturbance. The direct and significant correlation between relative frequencies confirmed these considerations. Probably, changes in heterogeneity due to wind farm were too limited in extension (i.e. they are below a threshold in area) and the related disturbances too low in magnitude to induce significant effects at the assemblage level (see Sousa, 1984; Pickett and White, 1985 and Brawn et al., 2001).

To our knowledge, this was the first research that tested the possible control-treatment changes in breeding bird populations, guilds and assemblages living in mosaics perforated by wind farm facilities. However, we highlighted some weaknesses of this study: (1) we tested possible control-treatment differences only in the same seasonal cycle, not investigating before-after changes at higher temporal scales; (2) we analysed only the structural patterns of populations, guilds and assemblages, not considering other complex medium- and long-term interactions, dynamics and consequences due to habitat perforation (e.g. increase of edge habitats and consequently nest predation: e.g. Huhta et al., 2004); (3) the point count method used has been focused only on a local set of common breeding birds and our conclusions on a lack of indirect impact of a windfarm were limited to this easily detectable species and a single case study; 4) our study was carried out in the season immediately following the placement of wind turbines in the site (winter 2013): in this sense our considerations on the absence of effects of wind turbines only apply to a short-term response of bird assemblage, guilds and species and we cannot exclude that structural changes at different levels may occur in medium-long term (lag effect; Masden et al., 2010; for fragmented and perforated landscapes: Kupfer and Franklin, 2009).

In this sense, since this landscape of the central and Southern Apennine shows a high ornithological interest (Important Bird Area IBA 115; Gariboldi et al., 2000; AA VV., 2003 and Teofili et al., 2009), we suggest a precautionary approach, so stimulating further studies at higher spatial and temporal scales and focused on more sensitive targets to direct collision (e.g. raptors of higher conservation concern, threatened species at national level; Percival, 2005; Drewitt and Langston, 2008; De Santis et al., 2009; Garvin et al., 2011; Saidur et al., 2011 and Rondinini et al., 2013). Finally, from an ecological perspective, we also encourage further studies focused on the effects on wind farm facilities on different ecologically-related guilds (e.g., insectivorous vs. granivorous, cavity nesters, etc.; Verner, 1984).

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